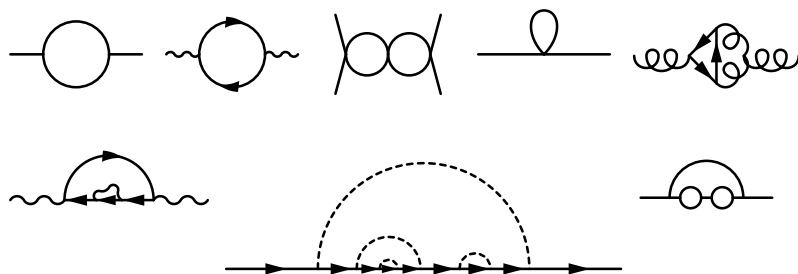


# A combinatorial perspective on Dyson-Schwinger equations

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February 14, 2008  
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## Feynman diagrams



Said to be divergent if they have external leg structure matching an edge or vertex of the theory (for a renormalizable theory).

Said to be 1-particle irreducible (1PI) if they are 2-edge connected.

## An equation

$$\gamma_1(x) = P(x) - \gamma_1(x)(1 - sx\partial_x)\gamma_1(x)$$

Important special cases

$$\gamma_1(x) = x - \gamma_1(x)(1 - 2x\partial_x)\gamma_1(x)$$

$$2\gamma_1(x) = \left(\frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{4}\right) - \gamma_1(x)(1 - x\partial_x)\gamma_1(x)$$

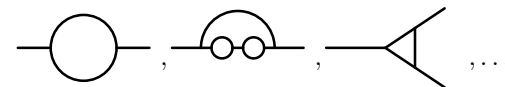
$$\gamma_1^+(x) = P^+(x) - \gamma_1^+(x)^2 - (\gamma_1^+(x) - 2\gamma_1^-(x))x\partial_x\gamma_1^+(x)$$

$$\gamma_1^-(x) = P^-(x) - \gamma_1^-(x)^2 - (\gamma_1^+(x) - 2\gamma_1^-(x))x\partial_x\gamma_1^-(x)$$

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## Examples



In  $\phi^3$  there is one edge type, , and one vertex type, .  
Divergent 1PI Feynman graphs:



In  $\phi^4$  there is one edge type, , and one vertex type, .  
Divergent 1PI Feynman graphs:

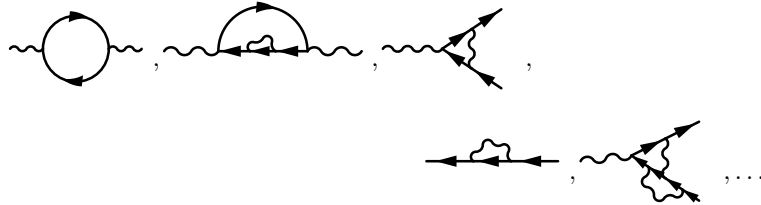


## More examples

In QED there are two edge types; a photon, , and an electron, , and one vertex type



Divergent 1PI Feynman graphs:



0-4

## Examples

$$\Delta\left(\text{loop}\right) = \text{loop} \otimes \mathbb{I} + \mathbb{I} \otimes \text{loop} + 2 \text{tadpole} \otimes \text{loop} + \text{tadpole} \otimes \text{tadpole}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \Delta\left(\text{box} - 2 \text{cross}\right) \\ &= \left(\text{box} - 2 \text{cross}\right) \otimes \mathbb{I} + \mathbb{I} \otimes \left(\text{box} - 2 \text{cross}\right) \\ & \quad + 2 \text{tadpole} \otimes \text{box} - 2 \text{tadpole} \otimes \text{cross} \\ &= \left(\text{box} - 2 \text{cross}\right) \otimes \mathbb{I} + \mathbb{I} \otimes \left(\text{box} - 2 \text{cross}\right) \end{aligned}$$

0-6

## The Hopf algebra

As a vector space the  $\mathbb{Q}$  span of Feynman graphs with  $\mathbb{I}$  the empty graph.

As an algebra with multiplication  $m$  given by disjoint union.

As a coalgebra with coproduct

$$\Delta(\Gamma) = \sum_{\substack{\gamma \subseteq \Gamma \\ \gamma \text{ product of divergent} \\ \text{1PI subgraphs}}} \gamma \otimes \Gamma/\gamma$$

As a Hopf algebra with antipode defined recursively by  $S(\mathbb{I}) = \mathbb{I}$ ,

$$S(\Gamma) = -\Gamma - \sum_{\substack{\mathbb{I} \neq \gamma \subseteq \Gamma \\ \gamma \text{ product of divergent} \\ \text{1PI subgraphs}}} S(\gamma)\Gamma/\gamma$$

on connected graphs, and extended as an anti-homomorphism.

0-5

## $B_+$

Write  $B_+^\gamma$  for insertion into the primitive graph  $\gamma$ . For example

$$B_+^{\text{loop}}(\text{loop}) = 2 \text{tadpole}$$

The sum of the  $B_+$ s for a given loop number is a Hochschild 1-cocycle

$$\Delta \Sigma B_+ = (\text{id} \otimes \Sigma B_+) \Delta + \Sigma B_+ \otimes \mathbb{I}$$

0-7

# A Dyson-Schwinger equation

Consider

$$X(x) = \mathbb{I} - \sum_{k \geq 1} x^k B_+^k (X(x)Q(x)^k)$$

where  $Q(x) = X(x)^{-s}$  with  $s > 0$  an integer. Associate with each  $B_+$  a Mellin transform

$$F^k(\rho_1, \dots, \rho_n).$$

Write the combination ( $X \mapsto G$ ,  $B_+^k \mapsto F^k$ , the  $\rho_i$  mark the insertion places) as

$$G(x, L) = \sum \gamma_k(x) L^k \text{ with } \gamma_k(x) = \sum_{j \geq k} \gamma_{k,j} x^j.$$

Systems of equation are similar but messier.

0-8

## Four initial steps

1. From the renormalization group equation or the scattering type formula of Connes and Kreimer derive

$$\gamma_k(x) = \frac{1}{k} \gamma_1(x) (1 - sx \partial_x) \gamma_{k-1}(x),$$

2. Reduce to primitives with a single insertion place, that is Mellin transforms in a single variable  $\rho$ . For example with

$$X = 1 - x B_+^{\frac{1}{2}} \circlearrowleft \left( \frac{1}{X^2} \right)$$

use

$$q_1 = \frac{1}{2} \circlearrowleft \quad q_2 = 0 \quad q_3 = \frac{1}{8} \circlearrowleft \circlearrowleft - \frac{1}{8} \circlearrowleft \circlearrowleft \quad \dots$$

0-10

# An example

Broadhurst and Kreimer; a bit of massless Yukawa theory.

$$X(x) = \mathbb{I} - x B_+ \circlearrowleft \left( \frac{1}{X(x)} \right),$$

$$X(x) = \mathbb{I} - x \circlearrowleft - x^2 \circlearrowleft \circlearrowleft - x^3 \left( \circlearrowleft \circlearrowleft + \circlearrowleft \circlearrowleft \right) - \dots$$

$$F(\rho) = \frac{1}{q^2} \int d^4 k \frac{k \cdot q}{(k^2)^{1+\rho} (k+q)^2} - \dots \Big|_{q^2=\mu^2}.$$

Combine to get

$$G(x, L) = 1 - \frac{x}{q^2} \int d^4 k \frac{k \cdot q}{k^2 G(x, \log k^2) (k+q)^2} - \dots \Big|_{q^2=\mu^2}$$

where  $L = \log(q^2/\mu^2)$ .

0-9

3. Rewrite the (analytic) Dyson-Schwinger equation using the usual tricks

- plug in  $\sum \gamma_k L^k$
- use  $\partial_\rho^k x^{-\rho} |_{\rho=0} = (-1)^k \log^k(x)$
- switch the order of  $\int$  and  $\partial$

$$\gamma \cdot L = \sum x^k (1 - \gamma \cdot \partial_{-\rho})^{1-sk} (e^{-L\rho} - 1) F^k(\rho) \Big|_{\rho=0}$$

where  $\gamma \cdot U = \sum \gamma_k U^k$ .

4. Reduce to geometric series Mellin transforms by noticing that for  $\ell \geq 0$

$$x^k (1 - \gamma \cdot \partial_{-\rho})^{1-sk} \rho^\ell \Big|_{\rho=0}$$

viewed as a series in  $x$  has lowest term  $x^{k+\ell}$ .

0-11

## Finding $\gamma_1$

From step 3

$$\gamma \cdot L = \sum x^k (1 - \gamma \cdot \partial_{-\rho})^{1-sk} (e^{-L\rho} - 1) F^k(\rho) \Big|_{\rho=0}.$$

Take an  $L$  derivative and set  $L = 0$  to get

$$\gamma_1 = - \sum x^k (1 - \gamma \cdot \partial_{-\rho})^{1-sk} \rho F^k(\rho) \Big|_{\rho=0}.$$

Take two  $L$  derivatives and use step 4 to get

$$2\gamma_2 = \sum_k x^k (1 - \gamma \cdot \partial_{-\rho})^{1-sk} r_k \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} \Big|_{\rho=0} = -\gamma_1 - \sum x^k r_k.$$

Write  $P(x) = -\sum x^k r_k$  and use step 1

$$\gamma_1 = P(x) - \gamma_1(1 - sx\partial_x)\gamma_1.$$

0-12

## How bad is the growth of $\gamma_1$ ?

Idea:

$$a(n) \text{ is approximately } \frac{p(n)}{n!} + sa_1 a_{n-1}$$

giving a radius of  $\min\left\{\rho, \frac{1}{sa_1}\right\}$  for  $\sum a_n x^n$ . For nonnegative series implement the idea by bounding on each side.

Easy direction:

$$a_n \geq \frac{p(n)}{n!} + s \frac{n-2}{n} a_1 a_{n-1}$$

Messy direction: for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an  $N > 0$  such that for  $n > N$

$$a_n \leq \frac{p(n)}{n!} + sa_1 a_{n-1} + \epsilon \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} a_j a_{n-j}$$

0-14

## As a recursive equation

View

$$\gamma_1(x) = P(x) - \gamma_1(x)(1 - sx\partial_x)\gamma_1(x)$$

as a recursive equation. At the level of coefficients

$$\gamma_{1,n} = p(n) + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (sj - 1) \gamma_{1,j} \gamma_{1,n-j}.$$

Assume  $\gamma_{1,1} \neq 0$  and  $f(x) = \sum \frac{p(n)}{n!} x^n$  has radius of convergence  $\rho > 0$ .

Let  $a(n) = \frac{\gamma_{1,n}}{n!}$ . The recursion becomes

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{p(n)}{n!} + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (si - 1) a_i a_{n-i} \binom{n}{i}^{-1} \\ &= \frac{p(n)}{n!} + \left(\frac{sn}{2} - 1\right) \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i a_{n-i} \binom{n}{i}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

0-13

## Why?

- Understanding the growth of  $\gamma_1$  is understanding the growth of the whole theory.
- Expect a Lipatov bound  $\gamma_{1,n} \leq c^n n!$ .
- Does the first singularity of  $\sum \frac{\gamma_{1,n}}{n!} x^n$  come from renormalon chains or from instantons?
- We've shown that a Lipatov bound for the primitives leads to a Lipatov bound on the whole theory.
- The radius is either the radius from the primitives or  $\frac{1}{s\gamma_{1,1}}$ , the first coefficient of the beta function.
- The moral is that the primitives control matters.

0-15

# As a differential equation

View

$$\gamma_1(x) = P(x) - \gamma_1(x)(1 - sx\partial_x)\gamma_1(x)$$

as a differential equation.

The  $P(x) = x$  family is the last bastion of exact solutions,

$$s = 1: \gamma_1(x) = x + xW\left(C \exp\left(-\frac{1+x}{x}\right)\right),$$

$$s = 2: \exp\left(\frac{(1+\gamma_1(x))^2}{2x}\right) \sqrt{-x} + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{1+\gamma_1(x)}{\sqrt{-2x}}\right) \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{2}} = C$$

$$s = 3/2: A(X) - x^{1/3}2^{1/3}A'(X) = C(B(X) - x^{1/3}2^{1/3}B'(X)) \text{ where } X = \frac{1+\gamma_1(x)}{2^{2/3}x^{2/3}}$$

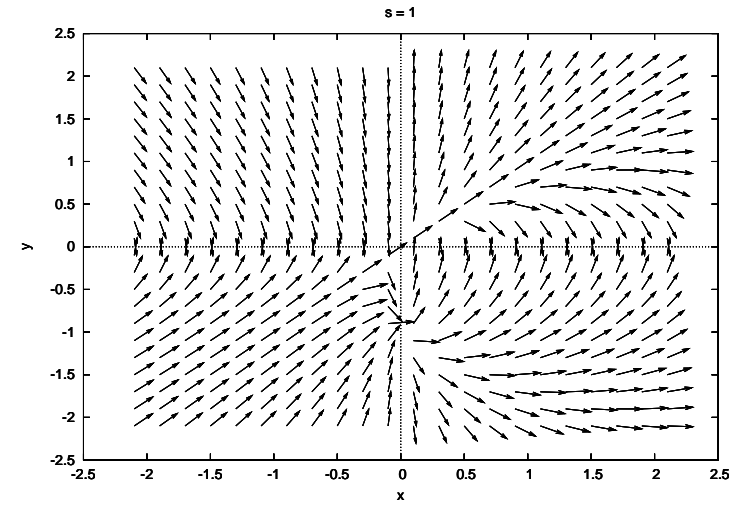
$$s = 3: (\gamma_1(x)+1)A(X) - 2^{2/3}A'(X) = C((\gamma_1(x)+1)B(X) - 2^{2/3}B'(X))$$

where  $X = \frac{(1+\gamma_1(x))^2+2x}{2^{4/3}x^{2/3}}$

where  $A$  is the Airy Ai function,  $B$  the Airy Bi function and  $W$  the Lambert W function.

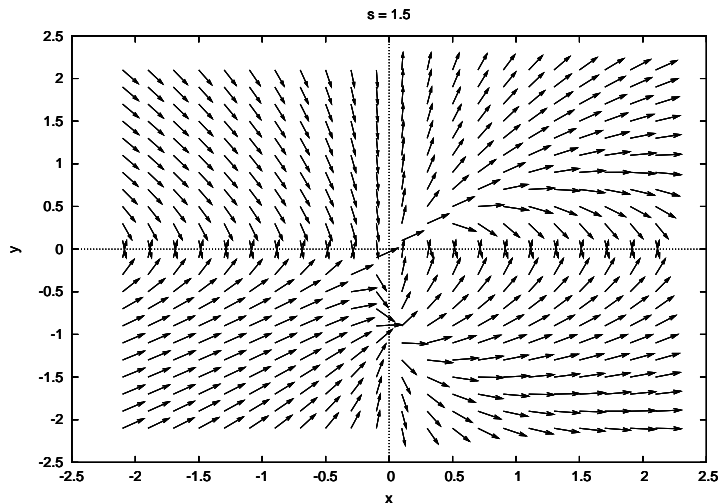
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$s = 1$



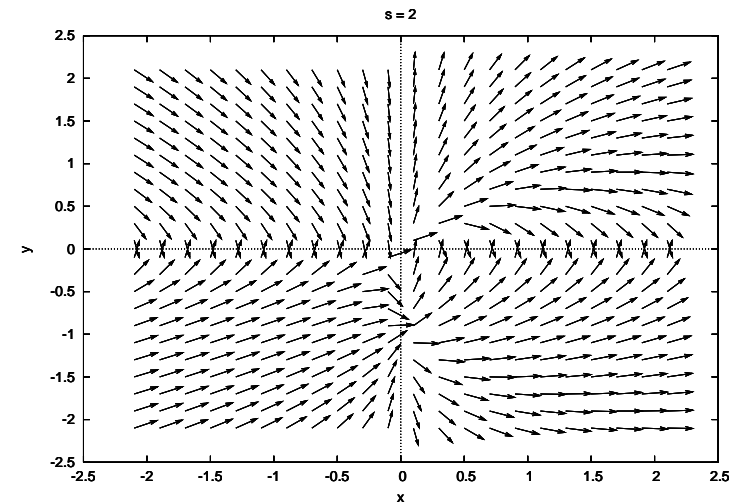
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$s = 3/2$



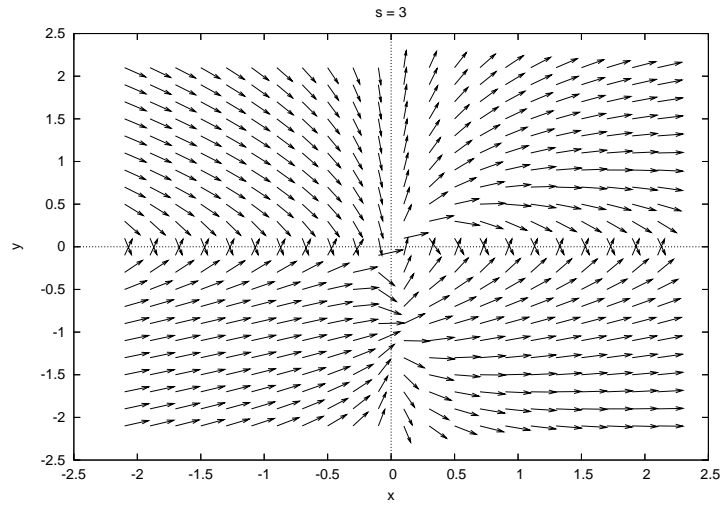
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$s = 2$



0-19

$s = 3$



0-20

## QED as a single equation

By the Baker, Johnson, Willey analysis we can reduce to a single equation for the photon propagator.

$$2\gamma_1(x) = P(x) - \gamma_1(x)(1 - x\partial_x)\gamma_1(x)$$

$s = 1$  gives a term  $B_+(\mathbb{I})$  independent of  $X$  to take into account the fact that the photon propagator can not be inserted into the one loop graph.

To 2 loops

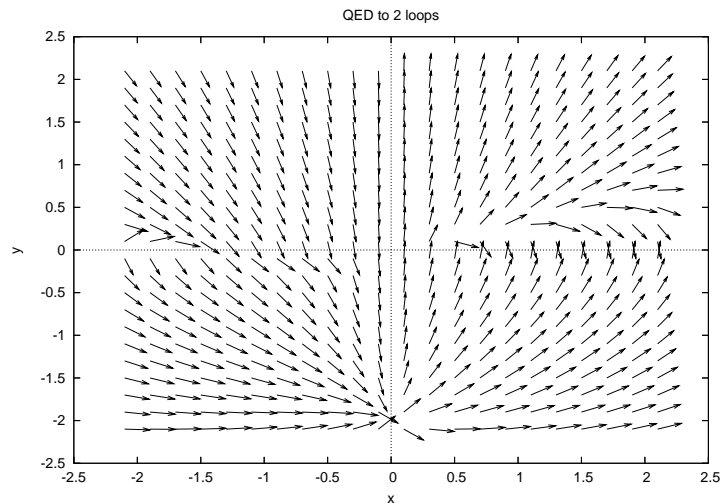
$$P(x) = \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{4}$$

To 4 loops we need to correct the primitives for our setup

$$P(x) = \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{4} + (-0.0312 + 0.06037)x^3 + (-0.6755 + 0.05074)x^4$$

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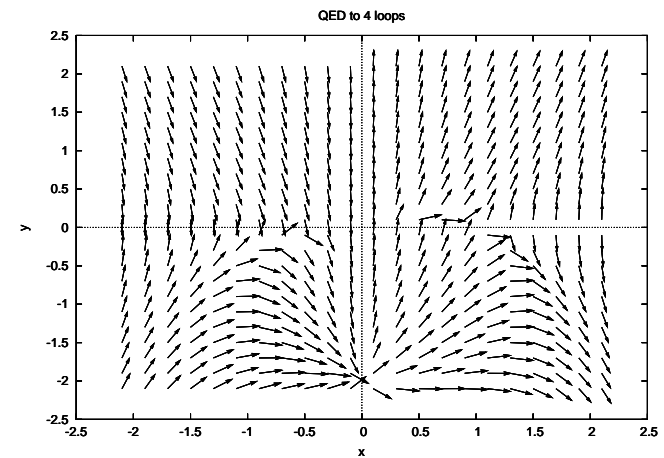
## QED to 2 loops



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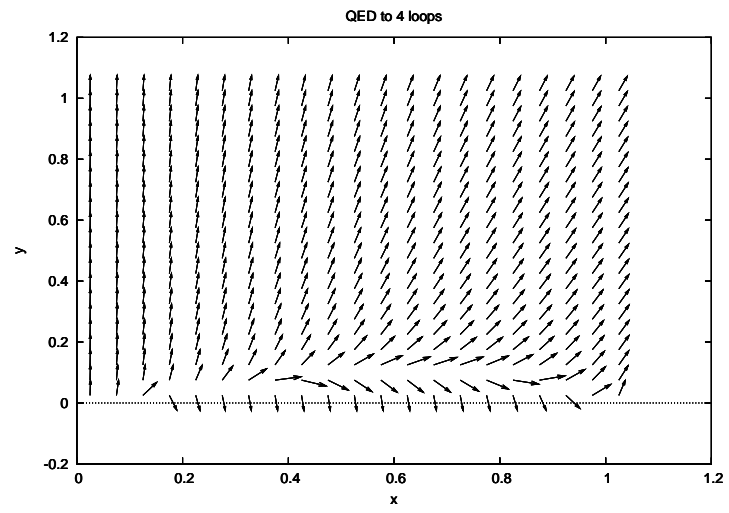
## QED to 4 loops

At 4 loops  $P(0.992\dots) = 0$  changing everything.



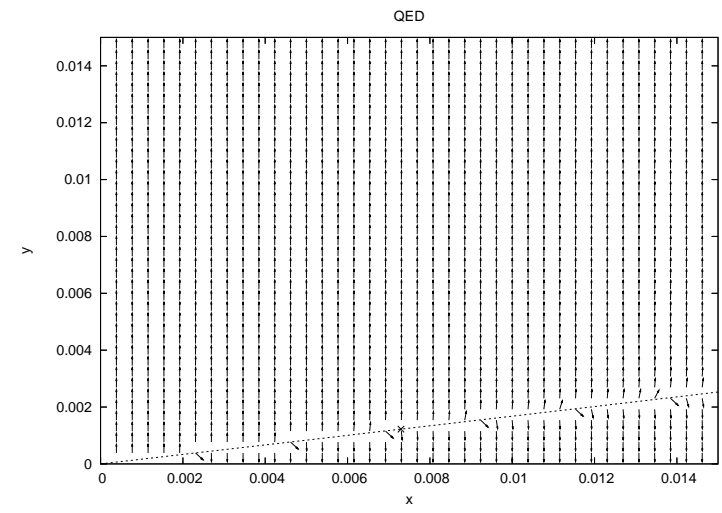
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Zoomed in



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We are here



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